DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 322 626 EA 022 149

AUTHOR Hayden, Robert N.
TITLE Principal Belief Systems: One Cultural Characteristic Allowing for Effective Instructional Leadership.
PUB DATE Apr 90
NOTE 47p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (Boston, MA, April 16-20, 1990).
PUB TYPE Speeches/Conference Papers (150) -- Reports - Research/Technical (143)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Administrator Role; Elementary Secondary Education; Ethnography; Field Studies; Organizational Objectives; Organizational Theories; *Participant Observation; *Principals; Qualitative Research; *Role Theory; *Socialization; Social Theories; *Superintendents

ABSTRACT

The ways in which principal belief systems develop in relation to superintendent role expectations for principals are described in this paper. Methodology included a literature review and participant observation during a 6-month field study to generate grounded theory. Findings indicate that superintendents' communication of role expectations to principals is a significant factor in the principal socialization process. A systematic evaluation process, preferably a conference between the superintendent and principal, is necessary for transmission of the instructional leader role. Congruent belief systems and role identities develop from principals' focus on superintendents' instructional messages, and result in improved home/school relations, instructional leadership, and distinguished schools. Figures illustrate models of the socialization process and interaction dynamics. An extensive bibliography is included. (LMI)

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PRINCIPAL BELIEF-SYSTEMS: ONE CULTURAL CHARACTERISTIC ALLOWING FOR EFFECTIVE INSRUCTIONAL LEADERHIP

by

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AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH ASSOCIATION
SESSION G-36 SOCIAL CONTEXT OF EDUCATION
APRIL 16-20
BOSTON, MASS.

EA 022 149

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Introduction

Effectiveness in organizations, whether private or public, has long fascinated the American public. We have been told that our business, schools, and other organizations are ineffective when compared to other countries. We have analyzed and researched what the elements or characteristics of an effective organization are. In 1983, with the release of A Nation at Risk, we began to take a hard and long look at our school organization: trying to determine what were the characteristics of an effective school.

Much of the emphasis, in effective school research and literature, has been focused on the site principal as the catalytic force determining school effectiveness (Bossert, Dwyer, Rowan, and Lee, 1982), without specifying the conditions which allow the principal to act successfully as the instructional and educational leader at a school (Pitner & Charters, 1984). Through personal experience, deduction was made that successful teachers had developed strong role identities and had successfully communicated these identities and role expectations to the students. This allowed the students to assume their role as students. The teacher

and student roles were complementary to one another, worked together, and were interdependent.

Could this simple observation be applied in a broader organizational context? It occurred as some of this research suggests that site principals could not successfully assume or enact their role unless the role of the district superintendent is understood, the expectations the superintendent held for them as principals are known, and how the roles fit into a total organizational context.

The problem then was to identify the degree (frequency) and kind (quality) of communication that exists between the site principals and the superintendent. This would be done by determining how closely principals' beliefs about the superintendents' behavior and role expectations for themselves match the actual identified superintendent role behavior and expectations.

The release of A Nation at Risk (1983) described our schools as woefully inefficient and ineffective. What could be done? In order to better understand the forces at work today we must take a look back in time. The effective schools movement of the 1980 's really emerged from two different strands of research, whose genesis we can trace back to the

early 1960's. One was the monumental Equality of Educational Opportunity Study (EEO) known as The Coleman Report (1966). Congress commissioned the work in 1964 and it was completed in 1966. The Coleman Report was a study of hundreds of elementary and secondary schools in the United States that literally rocked the educational establishment.

The major, or essential finding of the EEO research was that student characteristics, not school characteristics, statistically accounted for the school wide differences in student achievement and aspirations. In other words, differences in student outcomes could not be accounted for any better by knowing a school's characteristics (i.e., school facilities, expenditures, staff qualifications and programs) than by simply knowing a student's race and socio-economic status, and the racial and socio-economic composition of the student body.

In other words, all the things we had assumed were indicants of school and program quality were statistically unrelated to a student's achievements. High achieving schools were apparently successful because of the type of students served, rather than the impact made by resources, programs, materials or staff. The conclusion was that good students

carry their peers and the staff, and worst of all, the schools really didn't make a difference in the educational success of the students.

Christopher Jencks later reinforced this allegation with the publication in 1972 of his book Inequality. Jencks challenged the time honored role of schools as a potent force for promoting social and economic equality. Pulling together a complex collection of data, Jencks showed that the 1960's had produced little if any economic equality different from that in any previous decade. Significantly, education had had almost no bearing on equalizing the broad pattern of occupational and economic differences.

A second important development of the 1960's was the work of John Carroll (1963). Benjamin Bloom (1971), and James Block (1971). The catalyst for this was Carroll's develoment in 1963 of his theory of time analysis. Carroll believed that successful learning involved a balance between time allowed by schools for learning and time needed by students. When the scale was tipped in favor of rigid adherence to the clock, schedule, or calendar, slower students simply could not reach the same performance goals that faster students could. For Carroll, the question was not that slower students were incapable of reaching these goals, but

simply that they may not have been given the time needed to reach them. In other words, was low achievement caused by a structuring of time which ignored the learning needs and outcomes of slower students?

Bloom and Block developed the mastery learning model as a direct response to Carroll's ideas. Mastery learning was a practical attempt to insure that all students were given the opportunity to teach the learning goals that are essential for them to accomplish. Most importantly, schools did exert control over the conditions which would allow all students to learn well.

These two-strands came together in the work of Wilbur Brookover. Brookover (1977) was a sociologist at Michigan State University when he published the results of a study designed to validate the Coleman and Jencks' findings. In his study Brookover documented, described, and discovered what is generally called Effectives Schools.

Brookover's idea was deceptively simple and ingenious. If a school's achievement was solely determined and directly by the socio-economic status and racial characteristics of its students, then one should expect schools with similar student bodies to have similar achievement results.

To test this hypothesis Brookover chose to examine a large number of all-Black, low SES elementary schools in inner-city Detroit. He found that despite the characteristics of their students and staff, eight of the schools had significantly higher achievement test scores than the other schools with comparable student bodies. In fact, some of the schools had achievement test results which approached those of predominantly white middle class schools. It would appear that these eight schools were doing something that made a difference. Brookover next went into these eight schools to see what, if anything, distinguished them from the typical Detroit elementary school. How did these schools accomplish these exceptional results?

This was the genesis of the effective schools research. Schools, quite obviously, are organizations made up of people assigned to fulfilling a variety of roles. If we are to understand the school as an effective organization then we must study the relationship between the individuals, the beliefs they construct and maintain, and how the communication downward in the organization impacts its success in fulfilling its mission.

Much of the emphais recently in effective schools literature (Bossert, 1982; Dwyer, 1983; Rowan, 1984; Denk, 1984; and Lee, 1982) has focused on the site principal as the dominant model who supports an academic focus, and who by sheer modeling of behavior influences students with consistent feedback recognizing and supporting success. This still leaves an important question: What organizational conditions allow the principal successfully to assume the role of instructional and educational leader at a school? Trump (1986) suggests that instructional leadership is the principal's primary responsibility, yet many factors including the handling of student discipline problems and faculty resistance to new instructional improvement ideas prevent this. While the reseach (Wolcott, 1973; Martin & Willover, 1981; Peterson, 1978; Blumberg, 1985; and Lightfoot, 1983) suggests that the principal's role in the effectiveness of schools is far more important than had previously been believed, little, if any, research has concentrated on the roles of the district superintendent in supporting the principal's efforts, his function in the role socialization process, selection, in service training and evaluation of principals.

Current research (Anderson, 1982; Boyd & Crowson, 1981; Persell, 1982; and Pitner, 1986) into organizational life has primarily concentrated on the roles of principals, types of principals, how they behave, leadership styles, their approach to the role, while little, if any, specific research has been directed to the beliefs principals hold regarding the role enactment of superintendents and their role expectations for principals.

Recent research (Alvy, 1984; Anderson, 1982; Dusek, 1983; and Esposito, 1983) has also concentrated on the socialization process, how new principals progressed through various levels of the organizational structure before assuming their new roles. There is little research provided on how new principals acquire the role identify of their new status, and none dealing with the function of the superintendent in this role identification process.

Finally, effective schools research (Owens & Steinhoff, 1988; and Purkey & Smith, 1985) has delineated many characteristics of effective schools, including the pivotal role of the principal as instructional leader, but has almost completely ignored the role of the superintendent

in shaping the organizational processes to support and encourage the principal to enact successfully his/her instructional leadership role.

It therefore seems important to study the beliefs that site principals hold regarding their district level superintendent, the role that superintendents play in the socialization process of principals and the structuring of the district's organizational process in support of the principal's role towards effective school leadership.

The literature on socialization theories can be traced through two strands: succession or anticipatory socialization (Valverde, 1974 and 1975) and on-the-job socialization following appointment (Ortiz, 1978). The first defines the socialization process as a structured, progressive movement through various organizational levels. These theories are closely linked to the classical and social systems theories of organization (Shea, 1984; Dickson, 1983; Queralt, 1982; Gilmore, 1984; and Leizear, 1984).

In educational administration, these sequential levels have been well documented. White males assume the roles of teacher, vice-principal, principal, central office administrator, and finally, the superintendency.

Women either assume the role of teacher and principal, or they become specialists, supervisors, and on rare occasions, assistant superintendents of instruction. Minorities also begin as teachers, but in contrast to white males or females, they are most likely to advance into school administration as a project specialist (Ortiz, 1982). These structional theories define role socialization as a progress through line, staff, or support positions.

Since role acquisition is considered a physical movement from one level to another, several conditions or elements exist which will impact the individual. The first of these are organization boundaries (Schein, 1971). Organizations have long been looked at as entities with a bounded set of elements, sub-systems, and activities which interact as a single social unit. Organizational boundaries serve two purposes: 1) they define the external environment, or 2) they define internal elements within the organization. Schein (1971) has set forth three distinct interval boundaries which correspond to the three types of movement necessary in establishing a career. These are hierarchial boundaries, functional boundaries, and inclusion boundaries. The important point conceptually is that in the socialization process, one

makes a decision, a determination to either remain within the boundaries or cross over them. Significant also is the degree of permeability; the ease or degree of difficulty in crossing over the internal organization boundaries.

Schein (1971) also looks at what he calls the filtering properties as one attempts crossover. These filtering properties may include attributes, attitudes held, sponsorship, competencies, experience, and willingness to play a certain type of political game.

Socialization is most obvious as one crosses the organizational boundaries. Organizational socialization is maximized just prior to boundary passage (Schein, 1971). This is true because the organization is essentially concerned that the correct values and attitudes be present at the moment when an individual is being granted more authority (Schein, 1971). Secondly, the individual is anxious to move up and is therefore motivated to demonstrate knowledge of the organization norms and values. Finally, the individual has a need to reciprocate the correct organizational attitudes and values because of the new role demands.

In education, we can therefore identify two distinct socialization processes:

Anticipatory socialization can occur at two different points in a person's career. The decision to move through the hierarchy of an organization can come before formal entrance into the profession, or later, after formal admission has been granted. In education, many will enter the profession with the idea of advancement already made. Teaching, then, is only a necessary requisite level; one to leave as soon as possible (Blood, 1969).

For others, awareness of aspirations to become an administrator comes only after having been a teacher for some time. The relevant issue concerns the impact that is made on the anticipatory socialization process. Blood (1969) defines the anticipatory socialization process as the "function of positive orientation to nonmembership groups with consequences for the individual, his membership group, and the positive reference group" (Blood, 1969, p. 16). In other words, anticipatory socialization means psychological identification with a new group to gain membership. The point at which this identification comes will have consequences for the socializee.

When the decision to cross is early, the identification from the departing group is weak, deficient, and lacking in vigor. Detachment allows for a boundary crossing that is less stressful. In contrast, group identity results in stress when crossing over this phase. This stress is to the degree of commitment, loyalties, friendships, and attachments held with the group (Blood, 1969).

Anticipatory socialization itself involves more than a new psychological identification or orientation. It requires several actions. Griffiths (1965) has coined the phrase GASing to describe the process by which one Gets the Attention of his/her Superiors, (GASing). While the socializee is involved in this process, it is important to secure access to the new group through the cooperation of certain immediate superiors. This special relationship has been termed "sponsorship" and has been identified by Blood (1969), Wolcott (1973), Valverde (1974), Fugua (1983), Pacheco (1982), Farmer (1983), Cryer (1981), and Jackson (1981).

Besides sponsorship, the subject will experience fundamental changes. Attitude changes are made as the socializee identifies more with the new group (Blood, 1969; Villani, 1983; and Dusek, 1983).

Along with attitude changes, the socializee acquires new role responsibililties in response to their new job demands. Anticipatory socialization consists of six different steps: 1) Identification, 2) Peer group acceptance, 3) Socializee performs activities, 4) Socializee is adopted, 5) Socialization for compliance and assimilation, and 6) Socializee is fully advanced (Valverde, 1974).

As candidates are vying and contending for advancement, they are being seriously socialized. This process continues until they are secure in the new position or are deemed to be unfit for it. Duke, et al. (1984), Mascaro (1974), and Wolcott (1973) have identified several significant others who facilitate the socialization process. Teachers, central offices, and other principals, were all instrumental in the socialization process. Garberina (1980), states that principals gain their knowledge of their role from three sources: observation of principals while they were in other positions, conversations about the role with a principal while they were in another role, and informal transmittal of experiences from other principals once they were on the job.

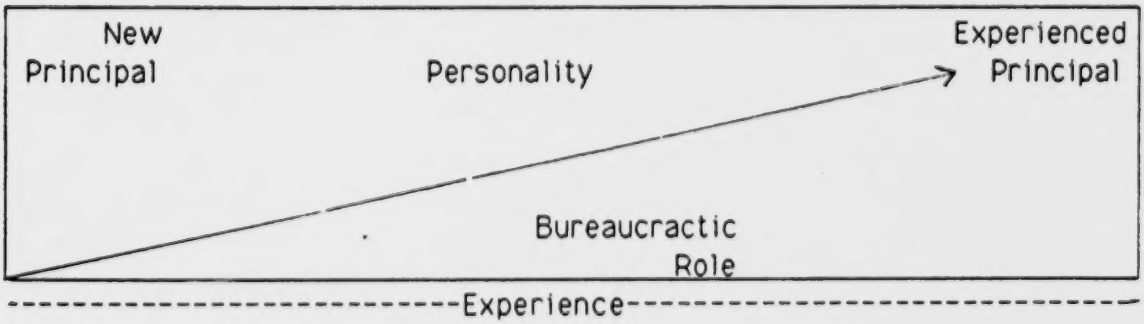
> Garberina states, "that while inservice training by district and professional organizations train principals for their behavioral roles as part of the district bureaucracy, the principals still felt that they must learn their jobs while performing them" (Garberina, 1980, p. 21).

Merton (1957) suggests that bureaucractic structures have the capacity to modify personality, while Bridges (1965), (Figure 1) concludes that as principals become more bureaucratically socialized, their personalities are submerged and they tend to perform the appropriate bureaucractic role behaviors with little variation. Experience for Bridges (1965) has a leveling effect on the performace of principals.

This finding was supported by the work of Wiggins, (1970, p. 16) who states that, "School bureaucracies mold principals into roles devised to maintain stability."

Figure 1

Performance Versus Experience



The second strand in socialization research (on-the-job socialization Duke, et al., 1984; Stout, 1982; Hannah, 1980; Stevenson, 1974; Fowler, 1984; Wood, 1980) can best be represented by the work of Alex Inkles (1973). This research concentrated on the socialization process. For example, Alex Inkles (1973, p. 615) defined socialization as the,

> process wherely individuals acquire the personal systems properties--the knowledge, skills, attitudes, values, needs, and motivations, cognitive, affective, and conative patterns--which shape their adaptation to the physical and sociocultural setting in which they live. The critical test of the success of the socialization process lies in the ability of the individual to perform well in the statuses--that is to play the roles in which he may later find himself.

Inkles approaches the problem from a dynamic and interactive framework. Rather than viewing socialization as a mechanical, structured process, Inkles looked into how one acquires and is then able to successfully perform his new role. Anticipatory or succession socialization research thus described how one is socialized in order to acquire a new role. Inkles described how one was socialized after the role acquisition. The problem for the individual is thus how to learn the roles associated with the different statuses encountered in life.

For Inkles, some statuses are well defined or establiished for the person. Age, group, sex, religion, and ethnicity were examples that fall into this category. Role socialization for these statuses pose less of a problem for the individual. Other positions the subject may occupy are less well defined and therefore more problematic, (ascribed and achieved statuses, Merton, 1957). The problems of socialization are compounded when status assignment is predominantly based on attainment, rather than by ascription. In terms of stabililty or change, a society may find its framework for assigning individuals to recognized statuses breaking down, or wholly new statuses may come into existence. As a consequence many people may find themselves unprepared to assume new roles, may feel inadequate to the task and will require mid-life or mid-career resocialization. Even with social interventioin, individuals may continue to feel ill prepared, dislocated, unfit, and inadequate to the role to which they have been assigned.

How then does one become socialized to assume new roles? How does one acquire the ability to perform well in the new statuses to which they may find themselves? Wolcott (1973) has described how the central office socializes principals. By use of the evaluation process,

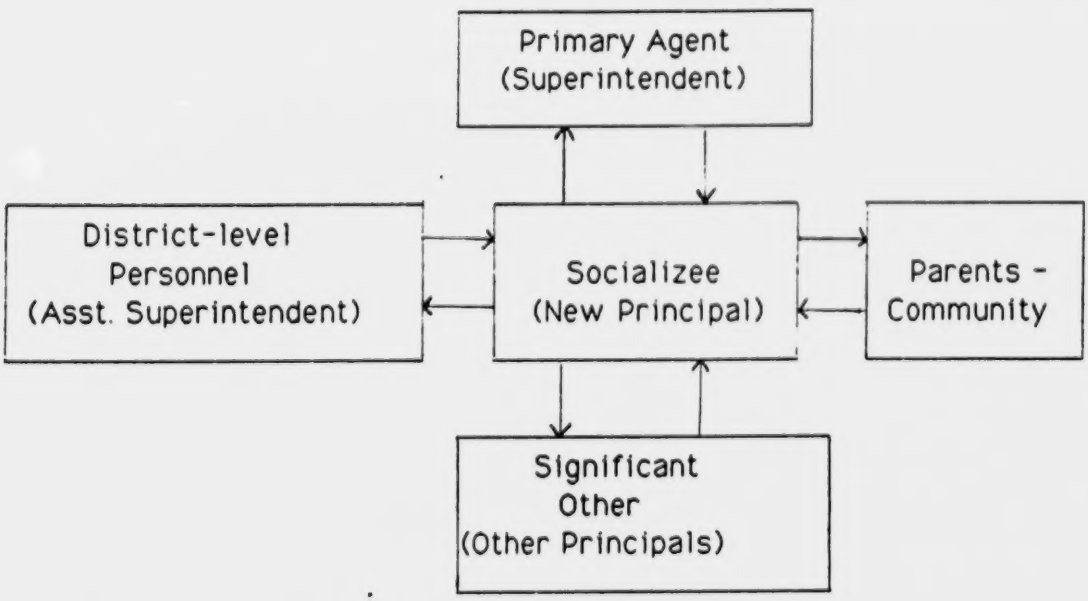
monitoring deportment at general meetings, and the conditions under which communication is maintained with the principal, i. e., telephone, memos, personal interaction, evaluation conferences, etc., a generalized bureaucratic mold is divised for principals to "maintain stability" (Wiggins, 1970; Wolcott, 1973). The school bureaucracy quickly begins to impress upon newscomers the role value of conformity, impersonality, subordination, and organizational loyalty. When personality and role expectations come into conflict, it it much more likely that the bureaucracy will socialize the individual rather than the individual personalizaing the role.

Inkles' (1973, p. 615-632) examination of this process is conceptualized in a socialization matrix consisting of four main elements. The four elements are: 1) main socialization issue, 2) agents of socialization - socializers, 3) objectives, and 4) task.

The most important element here is the organizational issue or life-condition, the social demand which dominates both the socializer and socializee. In other words, the issue can be conceived as the organization mission or goal; why the organization exists. The following model (Figure 2) illustrates the interaction between socializers and and subject (see next page).

The principal conduit through which information passes to the socializee is through the socializers, agents. It is important to recognize that the socializee's immediate supervisor becomes the principal agent in this model. There are to be sure significant others, those who also assume the role of agent, but it is the immediate supervisor that dominates the model. It is through him/her that the issue is communicated to the socializee. He/she must identify and continue to reinforce the organizational mission from his first

Figure 2 - Socializing Agents



initial interaction with the socializee. It is the agent who establishes the objectives, i.e., defines the goals for successful socialization and the conditions, sequential opportunities under which the socializee can be trained. Again, the agents help define the task, problem to be solved, or skill to be learned that the socializee must master or perform. He/she is also the agent who will evaluate the performance by the socializee and communicate back to him/her. The agent may also be called upon to make summative evaluation judgments on the performance of the socializee. Finally, the organizational mission will impact on both the objectives established by the agent as well as the task performed or learned by the socializee.

An assumption of this model is that the socialization process breaks down when the agent cannot transmit the mission of the organization to the socializee. If the organizational mission is defined as maintaining stability, conformity, subordination, and organizational loyalty, the principal will focus his efforts to that end rather than to instruction.

Methodology

This study was conducted as an exploratory field study employing the field study methods for data collection. The writer assumed the role of a

participant observer. The field study methodology was chosen because of all types of study they are the closest to real life. As Kerlinger (1973, p. 405) states, "Field studies are strong in realism, significance, strength of variables, theory orientation and heuristic quality". Consistent with Kerlinger's assertion, this study investigated the following questions: 1) How are principal belief systems regarding superintendent role enactment and role expectations for themselves formed? 2) What effect does the degree of congruency or incongruency between principals' perception of superintendent role behaviors and expectations and the actual identified superintendent roles and expectations have on the levels of instructional leadership, home-school relations, and positive school climate?

We can conceptualize field study research as a continuum from theory generation to theory verification. The generation of theory is a self-conscious attempt to develop a theory without preconceived relationships, properties, or theoretical categories. Theory verification, on the other hand, emphasizes hypothesis testing. The delineation between theory generation and verification can not always be clearly made. There is a

certain amount of overlapping (Glasser & Strauss, 1967), but the emphasis of the study must clearly be theory generation or theory verification.

Since the purpose of this study was theory generation, a methodology which is consistent with that purpose must be employed. Many facts are required for the comparative analysis necessary for the generation of substantive theory. This would include previously reported field studies, literature research, and direct gathering of data (Glasser & Strauss, 1967).

Kerlinger (1973) also discusses the difference between exploration which seeks "what is" rather than "predicts". This study was exploratory in nature and aimed at discovering the dynamics of the relationship between superintendents and site principals.

Becker and Geer (1954) also concur with Glasser and Strauss and Kerlinger. They argue the nature of the problem itself determines what method is most appropriate. If the problem is one of understanding a particular group, social problem, or relationship rather than the interrelationship of variables derived from a general theory, then a participant-observational form of research is most suited. But these two aims are not mutually exclusive; rather the focus of the study is

directed in one or another of these directions. Because this study was aimed at understanding substantive problems, one of the greatest problems or difficulties lie in discovering appropriate and valid indicators for theoretical variables. Participant observation is particularly useful in meeting these difficulties. Participant observation is also helpful in constructing a model of a social system of an organization allowing for the interrelations between the elements of that system.

Finally, Iannaccone (1973) argues that a field study methodology is most appropriate when one is attempting to develop theories regarding the work of individuals in school.

In light of the direction and research questions guiding this study, a field study participant observation methodology was selected as the most appropriate approach of investigation.

The data for this study were collected over a six-month period beginning in September 1988, and ending in February, 1989.

Findings

The purpose of this stiudy was to determine how principal belief systems regarding superintendent role enactment and role expectations for principals were formed.

As stated earlier, the superintendent contributes to a significant extent to the socialization process of principals. The superintendent does so by communicating to principals his/her role behavior expectations. Associated with these expectations, the superintendent transmits his perspective regarding the mission of the school district, the means by which this mission is to be fulfilled and the tasks necessary to accomplish it.

The communication between the superintendent and principals is at best haphazard and uneven in its message, intensity or delivery. The superintendent is constantly sending messages, both instructional and non-instructional, to his/her principals. The data suggest one important communication variable (between superintendent/principal) enabling some principals to properly assess and evaluate the messages they are receiving and processing. This communication variable was the direct superintendent/principal evaluation process. Through this process some principals gained additional information allowing them to more effectively evaluate superintendent messages regarding the districts' mission, objectives, and tasks. Other principals assignment to central office personnel in their evaluation and not privy to this direct

superintendent evaluation process lacked this additional information. The resulting effect was the concentration by these principals on non-instructional superintendent messages.

The receiving and processing by principals of superintendent messages will greatly influence or determine the beliefs that these principals form regarding superintendent behavior and their own role identity and enactment. Principals who concentrate on instructional superintendent messages will develop belief systems and role identities congruent to the superintendent's role as a district instructional leader. Principals who focus on non-instructional superintendent clues/cues will likewise develop a belief system and role identity that is incongruent to the superintendent's role as a districtwide instructional leader.

Summatively, the data indicate that superintendents transmit a variety of role-enactments to their principals. If they wish to communicate their role as an instructional leader, there must be in place a systematic means to accomplish this. One potent communication variable is the superintendent/principal evaluation conference. It is through this conference that principals were able to focus more intently on the superintendent's role as an instructional leader.

In districts where size and time constraints prohibit this (direct superintendent/principal evaluation conferences) the superintendent needs to structure a systematic means for communicating his role enactment and role expectancies for principals.

Propositions

A. Major Propositions: Communication Process

1. The superintendent is the most potent agent in the socialization process of the principal.

2. The superintendent engages in the socialization process of the principal by:

   a) transmitting his/her perspective of the mission of the school organization,

   b) transmitting the means by which the mission is to be fulfilled and,

   c) the tasks necessary to fulfill the mission.

3. The superintendent transmits the perspective presented above and the expectations for the principal's role behaviors through several communication means.

4. The superintendent's most effective communication means to principals is face-to-face.

5. The superintendent's other effective means for communicating to principals is in meetings and through memos and the telephone.

6. Because the superintendent's most potent means of communication to the principal are personal, the messages conveyed through

these means are not always uniform, received intact, and/or interpreted the same.

7. The superintendent's most potent face-to-face communication means to principals is the evaluation process.

B. Major Proposition: Socialization Process

1. The superintendent's most potent socializing mechanism is the evaluation process.

2. The evaluation process is the most potent socialization mechanism because:

   a) the evaluation specifies the mission to be fulfilled,

   b) the evaluation specifies the means by which the mission is to be fulfilled,

   c) the evaluation specifies the tasks necessary to fulfill the mission,

   d) the evaluation is a means to determine if expectations in all of the above have been fulfilled,

   e) personalizing the evaluation process transmits to the principal that the superintendent believes what the evaluation calls for is important.

3. The superintendent's personal participation in the evaluation process establishes consistency with the other personalized means of communicating to principals.

C. Major Proposition: Belief-System Formation

1. Principal role identification and belief systems are formed through a socialization process emanating from the superintendent:

a) the communication from superintendent to principal of his own role identity and expectations for principals is not always clear or consistent among all principals, and

b) superintendent clues/cues and messages are not always uniformly received or processed by all principals.

2. Because superintendents view themselves as team leaders and believe they communicate clear, concise, and uniform messages to all principals, they are unaware of their own potency in this socialization process.

3. Because principals perceive the superintendent as the powerful and intimidating socializing agent, they assign equal importance to all superintendent clues/cues and messages.

4. Because not all principals receive the same messages from the superintendent, differing and multiple belief systems among principals are formed.

5. The principal's belief systems contain elements regarding superintendent role behaviors and expectations and role behavior expectations for themselves.

6. If superintendents expect principals to be instructional leaders, they must be:

1) perceived by principals as instructional leaders,

2) able to transmit messages regarding the importance of instruction,

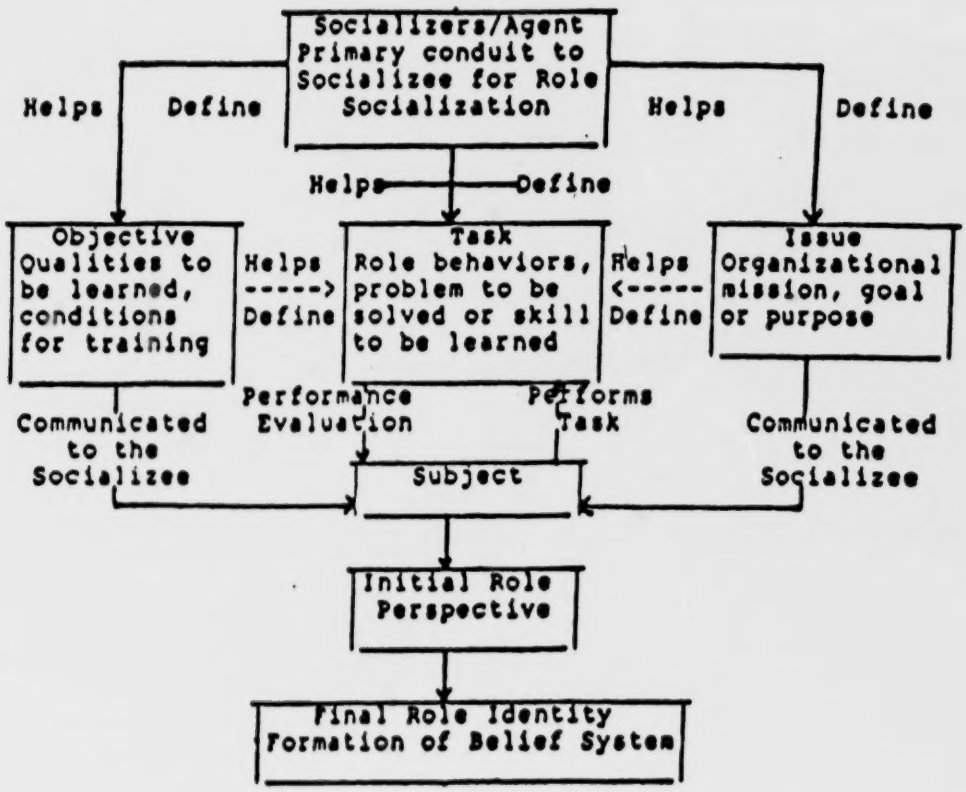
3) engaged in the evaluation process which focused on instruction.

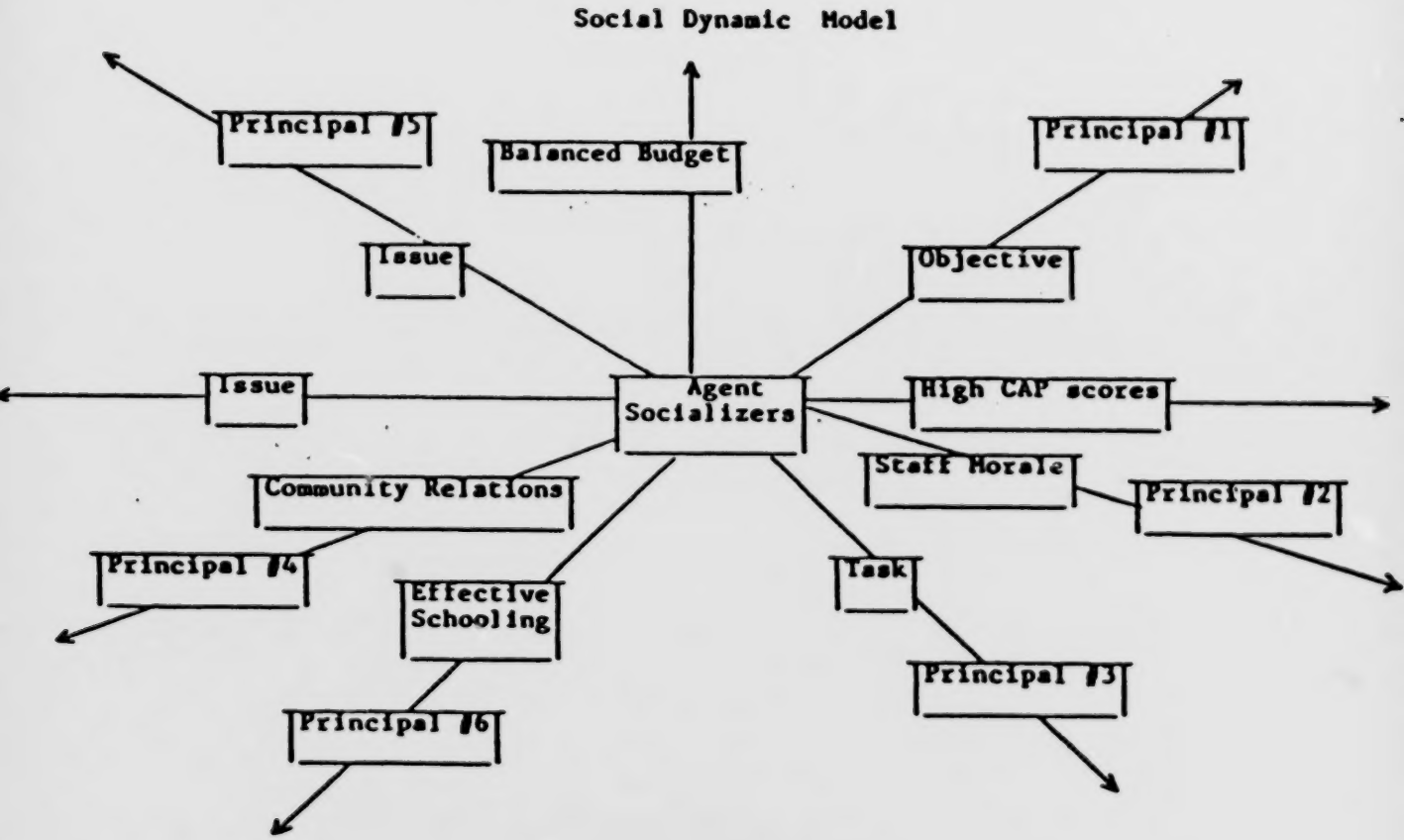
7. The superintendent's relinquishment of the evaluation process to other school personnel jeopardizes the focus on instruction.

D. Major Proposition: Belief-System Impact

1. When both the superintendent and principal hold belief systems which focus on instruction effective school variables are likely to be present.
2. Congruent superintendent and principal belief systems focusing on instruction improve home-school relations.
3. Congruent belief systems between superintendent and principal focusing on instruction create positive school climates.
4. Congruent belief systems between superintendent and principal focusing on instruction leads to instructional leadership.
5. Congruent belief systems between superintendent and principal focusing on instruction are likely to lead to schools which may be designated as distinguished.

Initial Socialization Model




Social Dynamic Model
Principal #5
Balanced Budget
Principal #1
Issue
Objective
Issue
Agent Socializers
High CAP scores
Community Relations
Staff Morale
Principal #2
Principal #4
Effective Schooling
Task
Principal #3
Principal #6

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